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BUDDHISM AS BRAHMANISM

In earlier as well as later Indian Buddhist sources we can often read, that the śramaṇa Gautama is identified with Brahmā (m.) or Mahābrahmā, that his Dharma is identified with Brahman (n.), that he and his monks - those that follow the true mārga - are the true brahmans, in other words that the ratnatraya is the true form of Brahmanism. Furthermore, Brahman and Nirvāṇa are used as synonyms (not just in Buddhist texts), the Buddha is said to know the Veda(s), and the purpose of following his teaching about Dharma (dharmadeśanā) is to become one with Brahman¹.

In a passage in the old *Suttanipāta* (11.7) some wealthy *brahmans* ask *Bhagavat*: "Do *brahmans* now, Gotama, live in conformity with the brahmanical lore of the *brahmans* of old?" "No, *brahmans*, *brahmans* now do not live in conformity with the brahmanical lore of the *brahmans* of old". "Then let the venerable Gotama tell us about the *brahmanical* lore of the *brahmans* of old, if

¹ This essay addresses itself to readers already familiar with the sources, and notes and ref. are therefore kept at a bare minimum.- On Buddhism as Brahmanism, see recently J.-U. HARTMANN, Das Varņārhavarņastotra des Mātrceta, Göttingen, 1987, pp. 215-231 with ref. to the earlier contributions by Geiger, Schrader, Bhattacharya.- The ideal was "companionship with Brahman/Brahmā, cf. F. O. SCHRADER, Kleine Schriften, Wiesbaden, 1983, p. 49. – Note that even the "triple protection" offered by Buddhism has Vedic roots, see F.W. Weiler, "The Buddhist Act of Compassion", in Indological Studies in Honor of W. Norman Brown, New Haven, 1962, p. 241.

it is not too much trouble for him". "Then listen, brahmans, pay careful attention. I shall tell you"².

There are, of course, numerous scriptural passages to the same effect: That Gautama was considered (and considered himself) an authority on matters of *Brahman*, that he, in other words, was considered a Vedic scholar. The Buddha, in short, is the true Brahmā, who teaches about the true *Brahman* to his disciples, the true *brahmans*. If this is historically true, one can in this sense claim that ancient Buddhism is reformed Brahmanism³.

The purpose of this paper is to establish this thesis from various independent angles by a method that could perhaps be described as "spiritual palaeontology"; or, as an evolutionist, one might prefer to speak of "mental phylogeny". The main task is to explore and pin down the historical context in which Gautama (the historical or mythical) developed what the sources transmit to us as being fundamental Buddhist ideas.

In the Beginning

I am tempted to start with the exaggeration that the entire body of Buddhist *sūtras* can be seen as one huge commentary and elaboration of a few Vedic passages, the most important of which is undoubtedly RV 10.129, the celebrated cosmogonic hymn from *Prajāpati Parameṣṭhin*:⁴

² Translation by K. R. NORMAN, *The Rhinoceros Horn*, London, 1985, p. 49. – For the ancient canonical texts the editions of the Pāli Text Society (PTS) are used. Further ref. in CPD = A Critical Pāli Dictionary, Copenhagen, 1924-; and PED = The Pāli Text Society's Pāli-English Dictionary, London, 1972; also SWTF = Sanskrit-Wörterbuch der buddhistischen Texte aus den Turfan-Funden, Göttingen 1973-; and EDGERTON'S BHSD.

³ Cf. e.g. the *Varṇaśatam*, an eulogy of one hundred *epitheta* of the Buddha, ed. in E. WALDSCHMIDT, *Ausgewählte Kleine Schriften*, Stuttgart, 1989, pp. 329-345. Interesting from our point of view are: *agraprāpta*, *ṛṣisattama*, *gambhīra*, *traividya*, *dharmastha*, *brahmaprāpta*, *sugata* - Buddha is the "true *brahman*".

⁴ The most recent and convenient edition: B. A. van NOOTEN, G. B. HOLLAND (eds.), Rig Veda. A metrically restored text, Cambridge, Mass. 1994, p. 554.- The philosophically interesting hymns have often been discussed, cf. e.g. R. ROCHER (ed.), India and Indology. Selected articles by W. Norman Brown, Delhi, 1978, pp. 5-89.

- násad āsīn nó sád āsīt tadắnīm násīd rájo nó víomā paró yát / kím ávarīvah kúha kásya śármann ámbhah kím āsīd gáhanam gabhīrám //
- ná mṛtyúr āsīd amṛtam ná tárhi ná rấtriyā áhna āsīt praketáḥ / ánīd avātám svadháyā tád ékam tásmād dhānyán ná paráḥ kim canắsa //
- 3. táma āsīt támasā gūļhám ágre apraketám salilám sárvam ā idám / tuchyénābhú ápihitam yád āsīt tápasas tán mahinájāyataíkam //
- 4. kámas tád ágre sám avartatádhi mánaso rétaḥ prathamáṃ yád ásīt /
 - sató bándhum ásati nír avindan hṛdí pratīṣyā kaváyo manīṣá //
- 5. tiraścino vitato raśmir eṣām adhāḥ svid āsī3d upári svid āsī3t / retodhā āsan mahimāna āsan svadhā avástāt práyatiḥ parástắt //
- 6. kó addhá veda ká ihá prá vocat kúta ájātā kúta iyáṃ vísṛṣṭiḥ / arvấg devá asyá visárjanena áthā kó veda yáta ābabhúva //
- iyám vísṛṣṭir yáta ābabhűva yádi vā dadhé yádi vā ná / yó asyádhyakṣaḥ paramé víoman só angá veda yádi vā ná véda //

It is entirely immaterial to our purpose that some of these lines are probably as obscure to us as they were to the ancient Indians. The important facts are these:

To begin with, before sat and asat, there "was" tad ekam; it is gahanam gabhīram - a gap ginnunge, Greek Chaos. The "elements" are not yet manifest. But then kāma and manas become active, and sat and asat become manifest. The world, everything, is created. Somehow the solution to the mystery of creation/evolution can be known in one's heart.

Indologists early recognised the general importance of this hymn for the study of later Indian philosophy. Geldner pointed out some relevant passages from Vedic literature: "Dieses Eine fürwahr (ékaṃ vā idáṃ) hat sich zu dem All (idaṃ sarvam) entwickelt" (RV 8.58.2); "Das Eine (ekam) enthallt alles, was sich bewegt und was feststeht, was geht und fliegt; verschiedenartig hat es sich entwickelt" (3.54.8); "Das, was nur ein Eines ist (ekaṃ sat), benennen die Sprachkundigen (vipra) vielfach" (1.164.46). In 10.82.6 ekam is said to rest in the navel of the unborn (aja), and in

1.164.6 ekam is ajasya $r\bar{u}pe$. The unborn reality is thus an ancient Vedic idea⁵.

So, already in the *Rgveda* (RV) the "reality" of something "unborn", the One, profoundly beyond being and nonbeing is acknowledged as the ultimate source of the universe, or the "world".

Later tad ekam was identified with Brahman (n.), and that Brahman, again, was recognised as having two forms. A very early and very explicit passage to this effect is Bṛhadāraṇyaka-Upaniṣad 2.3.1: dve vāva Brahmaṇo rūpe mūrtañ caivāmurtañ ca martyañ cāmṛtañ ca. Brahman has two forms, a bodily and a bodiless, a mortal and an immortal⁶.

When the supreme god (if we can use that expression), though bodiless and immortal, spontaneously manifested himself/itself in a bodily and mortal form $(r\bar{u}pa)$, the technical term used for his physical form was *Bhagavat* (from *bhaga* and *vat*). Whereas the term *bhaga* is often used of the Vedic gods (*Indra*, *Agni*, et al.) *bhaga-vat* has not yet obtained the technical meaning that later on applies to virtually any immortal that spontaneously appears in a mortal frame. (We are here at the source of the later avatar theory).

When we therefore in later literature come across such phrases as *Buddho bhagavā*, *Viṣṇur bhagavān*, *Kapilo bhagavān*, etc. etc. it would be very misleading simply to treat *bhagavān* as a mere honorific term, for it in fact reflects an original idea of the two distinct forms of *Brahman*. This then means that the common phrase *Buddho bhagavān* should not just be translated "The Lord Buddha", or the like, but: Buddha in his manifest, mortal, form. Implicit is here the idea of two forms of the Buddha.

I shall revert to this fundamental point but first I shall take up a few related matters.

⁵ Ref. to K. F. Geldner, *Der Rigveda in Auswahl*, Stuttgart, 1907-09. – Since *aja* is thus Vedic, the Mahāyāna doctrine of *ajāti-samatā*, *anutpāda*, etc. obviously has ancient roots. See e.g. O. QVARNSTRÖM, *Hindu Philosophy in Buddhist Perspective*, Lund, 1989, p. 24 etc.

⁶ Pointed out e.g. by V. FAUSBØLL, Fire Forstudier til en Fremstilling af den indiske Mythologi efter Mahābhārata, København, 1897, pp. 1-21. See also his Indian Mythology, London, 1902, pp. 57-75. A work of good common sense.

Going beyond sat and asat

Programmatic not just of *Madhyamaka* but of *Mahāyāna* and to some extent also of early Buddhism is the first verse of Nāgārjuna's *Yuktisastikā*:⁷

astināstivyatikrāntā buddhir yeṣām nirāśrayā / gambhīras tair nirālambaḥ pratyayārtho vibhāvyate //

There is something (here termed *pratyayārtha*, to which we shall also come back), which is *gambhīra* and it can be developed, or realised, by those whose *buddhi* (a synonym of *dhī*, *mati*, *prajñā* and the like) has gone beyond *asti* and *nāsti*, elsewhere commonly expressed as *sat* and *asat*.

Like the poet of RV 10.129 the great $\bar{a}c\bar{a}rya$ of $Mah\bar{a}y\bar{a}na$ is concerned, from the very start, with the Profound beyond sat and asat. Being a learned Sanskritist and brahman before converting to $Mah\bar{a}y\bar{a}na$, it goes without saying that he would have known this Vedic hymn by heart.

This concern can be traced back to the earliest canonical Buddhist scriptures. Most important in this regard is the $Brahmaj\bar{a}las\bar{u}tra$, the authority of which $Mah\bar{a}y\bar{a}na$ authors often refer to⁸. (The text is still available in Pāli, Tibetan, Mongolian, Chinese and Sanskrit fragments.) In a recurring old formula, the author (compiler) assures us that he is here concerned with certain profound principles ($dhamm\bar{a}$ $gambh\bar{i}r\bar{a}$) etc., ye $Tath\bar{a}gato$ sayam $abhi\bar{n}n\bar{a}$

⁷ Quoted from my *Nagarjuniana*, Copenhagen, 1982, p.102. Further ref. to many of the sources here discussed may be found in my book from 1982. - For *gambhīra* (said of *śasanāmṛta*, *dharma*, *tattva*), see *Ratnāvalī* 1.62, 74, 75, MK XXIV.9). Also *dharma* is *duravagāha*, deep as the ocean (MK XXIV.12).

⁸ There are often ref. to the *Brahmajālasūtra* in the works of the major Mahāyāna philosophers, see O. QVARNSTRÖM, *op. cit.*, p. 98; F. O. SCHRADER, *op. cit.*, passim; J. MAY, *Candrakīrti. Prasannapadā* Madhyamakavṛtti, Paris, 1959, pp. 277-298.- For the various versions, see F. Weller, *Kleine Schriften 1-2*, Stuttgart 1987. (Unfortunately, the Tib. and Mong. version, publ. Leipzig, 1934, are not included in the reprint.). Sanskrit fragments (§ 81-93, 155, 168) were ed. by J.-U. HARTMANN, Göttingen 1989 and 1992.

sacchikatvā pavedeti. I think R. Otto Franke was on the right track when he, referring to this old formula, spoke of "Das einheitliche Thema des Dīghanikāya". The technical meaning of bhagavān, however, escaped him. And so did the precise historical context⁹.

The sūtra can almost be seen as a commentary on RV 10.129. It is concerned with the profound dharmas (10.129.1), and when it says that the Tathāgata himself has known these and pronounced, or taught them (to others), this is almost a direct reply to the question in 10.129.6: kó addhā veda, ká ihá právocat? The "unifying theme" of DN, in other words, is to give a reply to a celebrated line in RV 10.129.

Otherwise the $s\bar{u}tra$ - the $Brahmaj\bar{a}las\bar{u}tra$ - is concerned with those (ignorant) brahmans etc. who maintain some sixty-two theories (drsti) about the soul and the world based on the notion of the past and/or the future. All such speculations (drsti) are condemned by the $Tath\bar{a}gata$ (who has "seen for himself"), because brahmans etc. get entrapped and are caught in the net by them. The basic error consists in "seeing" or believing in a first or final term of anything. The truth of the matter is that there is no $p\bar{u}rv\bar{a}nta$, no $apar\bar{a}nta$. A given drsti always must express itself in terms of sat/asti or $asat/n\bar{a}sti$. Since there is actually no first or final term, it is not valid to make any absolute distinction between the two, and all drstis must be abolished in order to discover ($vibh\bar{a}vyate$) the Profound beyond asti and nasti - the two extremes (anta) of $s\bar{a}svata$ and uccheda.

Evolution

Another sūtra that relates to RV 10.129, also in the DN, is the Aggañña, available in Pāli as well as Chinese. It presents us with a cosmogonic Buddhist myth ("A Book of Genesis", Rhys Davids), the importance of which was recognised by Konrad Meisig (p. 61): "Dunkelheit, Dichte (bzw. Enge) und Einheit gehören schon im rgvedischen Hymnus vom Ursprung der Welt (X 129) zusammen. Mit

⁹ R. O. Franke, Kleine Schriften, Wiesbaden, 1978, pp. 917-1017.

eben diesen drei Eigenschaften wird der Zustand vor dem Beginn der kosmischen Emanation charakterisiert... Die in der Kosmogonie versuchte Weltergründung ist profan, weil sie die Welt aus sich selbst heraus erklärt.... Dem Mythos liegt ein zyklisches Weltbild zugrunde, er kommt deshalb ohne einen Schöpfergott aus. Die Welt hat weder Anfang noch Ende; sie dehnt sich nur aus und zieht sich wieder zusammen, sie expandiert und verdichtet sich erneut (nivartate-saṃvartate), über lange - aber nicht unendlich lange - Zeiträume...Dieses Weltbild ist ebenso für den Hinduismus massgeblich und im indischen Kulturkreis überhaupt vorherrschend geworden "10".

The text relates (DN III, 84-85) how ayam loko samvattati and how ayam loko vivattati. As the world passes away and evolves anew (in a cyclus without beginning and end) there are certain beings "made of mind" (manomaya). In the beginning there is a mass of water (ekodakībhutam), darkness, deep darkness. The sun and the moon do not appear, no stars and no constellations appeared, night and day were not manifest... Eventually, earth was spread out in the waters¹¹.

So here too *Tathāgata* presents himself as a Vedic scholar. No wonder that the *sūtra* introduces this piece of Vedic exegesis with words that identify *Tathāgata* with *Dharmakāya*, or *Brahmakāya*, and *Dharmabhūta* or *Brahmabhūta* (DN III, 84).

Meisig wrote (p. 61): "Der Aggañña-Mythos behandelt eine Reihe von Fragen, die alle so unbuddhistisch wie nur möglich sind. Buddhistisch wäre die Frage nach der Erlösung".

The opposite is, of course, true. Even Meisig himself does not question the authenticity of the archaic text found in the Buddhist canon. And how could he? So how can it be "unbuddhistisch"? Moreover, the text makes a lot of good sense once it is seen in its

¹⁰ K. Meisig, Das Sütra von den Vier Ständen, Wiesbaden, 1988.

¹¹ In spite of H. LÜDERS, Beobachtungen über die Sprache des buddhistischen Urkanons, Berlin, 1954, p. 81, n. I, I think that ekodībhāva is related to ekodakībhūtam.

proper context. Like so many other Buddhist texts it is concerned with issues raised in RV 10.129, and thereby, as we shall see, also with *mokṣa*.

On kāma and manas

In RV 10.129.4 we were told:

kámas tád ágre sám avartatádhi mánaso rétali prathamán yád ásīt

In the beginning $k\bar{a}ma$ came upon that, that was the first seed of manas. Not only do we note that the word sam + vrt is used to describe the initial cosmogonic activity (as in the $Agga\tilde{n}\tilde{n}a$: samvattati), but also that $k\bar{a}ma$ and manas are, so to speak, the fundamental evil - i.e. from the perspective of one who wants to get back to the Profound.

The *Bṛhadāraṇyaka-Up*. 3.2.7 explains why: $manas\bar{a}$ hi $k\bar{a}m\bar{a}n$ $k\bar{a}mayate$.

In the Buddhist texts the fundamental evils are usually t_l :s, $n\bar{a}$ and $avidy\bar{a}$ - more or less synonyms of $k\bar{a}ma$ and manas. The $Agga\tilde{n}\tilde{n}a$ spoke of beings consisting of manas, who, due to t_l :s, $n\bar{a}$, became responsible for evolution. Possibly Gautama introduced the terms t_l :s, $n\bar{a}$ and $avidy\bar{a}$ in this context¹².

It only takes a glance at the Buddhist dictionaries under $k\bar{a}ma$ and mano/mana(s) to conclude that these two concepts were among
the most important of all in ancient Buddhism.

When the Buddha propounded his own theory of causality, $prat\bar{\imath}tyasamutp\bar{a}da$, to account for the genesis of duhkham (about which below) he still placed $avidy\bar{a}$ or $trsn\bar{a}$ at the root.

An old $g\bar{a}th\bar{a}$ is often ascribed to the Buddha (e.g. *Prasanna-padā*, p. 350; 451):

¹² The canonical *logion* e.g. in *Nagarjuniana*, p. 147, n.21.-The term *logion* (cf. Pythagoras, Jesus!) I owe to C. A. SCHERRER-SCHAUB, *Yuktiṣaṣṭikāvṛtti*, Bruxelles, 1991, *passim*. (A very valuable work with numerous ref. also for our purpose).

kāma, jānāmi te mūlam samkalpāt kila jāyase / na tvām samkalpayiṣyāmi tato me na bhaviṣyasi //¹³

It almost sounds like a piece of autobiography; the Buddha has finally found the $m\bar{u}la$ (cf. retah above) of $k\bar{a}ma$, and he has found it in samkalpa, the intentional activity of mind, also a common canonical expression.

Once again, the verse (if authentic) can easily be understood as a piece of Vedic exegesis on the part of Gautama.

The final chapter of the Pali *Dhammapada* (PD) - corresponding to the first chapter of the "Gāndhārī" *Dharmapada* (GD), with numerous parallels in *Udānavarga*, *Saṃyutta*, etc. - transmits a number of verses, some of them obviously quite archaic, that are supposed by tradition to go back to the Buddha himself. Like so many other canonical texts they deal with the "true" *brahman* (*brāhmaṇa* / *brammaṇa*).

Some of the otherwise vague or obscure verses suddenly make very good sense when seen in the perspective of RV 10.129, as suggested above. A few examples: Above all the true brahman should get rid of $k\bar{a}ma$ (PD 383, 401, 415 (cf. 416); GD 9, 10, 20, 21, 33); he should know the uncreated, somehow beyond duality, the dharma etc., and thus get rid of duhkham. And then we come to the interesting verse (PD 390 - GD 15, see Brough, p. 121):

na brāhmaṇass' etad akiñci seyyo yadā nisedho manaso piyehi / yato yato hiṃsamano nivattati tato tato sammati-m-eva duhkham //

l will not here take up space discussing this difficult verse to which Brough assigns a crux, but merely suggest this solution: The first part is a question: Is *etad akiñci* (= *tad ekam*) not preferable for a true *brahman*, (the state) when his *manas* (read: *hi 'ssa mano*) is

¹³ Prasannapadā, see C. A. SCHERRER-SCHAUB, op. cit., p. 336 for the edition and the translations. The Buddhist sources share saṃkalpa with the early Upaniṣads. Very useful is V. P. LIMAYE, R. D. VADEKAR (eds.), Eighteen Principal Upaniṣads, Poona, 1958. I here rely heavily on the Index to words and clauses, pp. 522-748. - Also DINES ANDERSEN, Om Brugen og Betydningen af Verbets Genera i Sanskrit, Kjøbenhavn, 1892.

held back from pleasures? The second part is an answer: Yes, for the more his mind stops its activity, the more "suffering" ceases. (The final line is still problematic.) The verse, in brief, deals with cittavrttinirodha, or yoga. The manas, responsible for kāma, must cease its activity before one (i.e. the yogi(n)) can attain etad akiñci¹¹⁴. There are other canonical verses to the same effect¹⁵. Thus Sam. I, 49: nappahāya munī kāme ekattam upapajjati has a Sanskrit parallel in Udāna XI.1: nāprahāya munih kāmān ekatvam adhigacchati and DP 383: sankhārānam khayam ñatvā akatañūu si brāhmaṇa So the akata, etad akiñci, ekattam and ekatvam refer to the same gahanam gambhīram and tad ekam, as did RV 10.129. Surely, the vipras speak of ekaṃ sat in many ways!

In PD 394 we have another case where translators not recognising the historical context seem to have read their own ideas into the text:

kiṃ te jaṭāhi dummedha kiṃ te ajinasāṭiyā? abbhantaraṃ te gahanaṃ bāhiraṃ parimajjasi

Here abbhantaram is, of course, an adjective or adverb (see CPD, s.v.), meaning "being within, inside", as opposed to bāhiram. The "Buddha" is reminding the ignorant listener that gahanam (= tad ekam, etc.) is (to be found) within, so it is foolish to be so concerned about "external appearances". Accordingly, in PD 403 the real brāhmaṇa is described as gambhīrapañña - he knows the Profound - the Profound what? - The gahanaṃ gabhīram of RV 10.129.1. What we are searching for, the Vedic poet told us, is to be found inside in our heart. So abbhantaram is an echo of hṛdi, as are several other terms in this chapter of PD/GD etc.

Another term that belongs to this context is amatogadham (PD 411), glossed by amatabbhantaram, and a synonym of nirvāṇa (cf. CPD, s.v.). It is the "depth" of amṛta, and as such much the same as the gahanaṃ gabhīram.

¹⁴ Using J. Brough (ed.), *The Gāndhārī Dharmapada*, London, 1962. See also F. Bernhard (ed.), *Udanavarga*, Göttingen, 1965-68. - For *na...etad akiñci*, cf. *naiḥśreyaso dharmo gambhīro...Ratnāvalī* 1.75; and CPD s.v. *akiñcañña* (= *nibbāna*).

¹⁵ J. Brough, op. cit., p. 120.

But how can all these terms become synonyms, more or less, of nirvāṇa, one of the four satyas of the Aryans?

The Problem of Nirvāņa

I do not here need to recall that it has been the topic of much learned discussion and controversy. As PED, p. 362 correctly noticed under $nibb\bar{a}na$, only in the older texts do we find references to a simile of the <u>wind</u> and the flame ...moreover, one has to bear in mind that native commentators themselves never thought of explaining $nibb\bar{a}ha$ by anything like blowing $(v\bar{a}ta)...$

This, I suggest, is because they did not, of course, tackle the problem of *nivvāṇa* in a historical fashion. Looking for the historical origin of the term, I suggest that it has its roots in RV 10.129.2:

ấnīd avātám svadháyā tád ékam.

That One breathed, windless, by its own power¹⁶. So, whoever first coined the term nir- $v\bar{a}na$ had in mind tad ekam, which was likewise a- $v\bar{a}t\acute{a}m$.

I can think of no more simple or natural suggestion as to the origin of the concept of $nirv\bar{a}na$. That the original context was later forgotten is, of course, only what one would expect.

The Brahmanical sources seem to have avoided for long the term (not the idea) $nirv\bar{a}na$ - it is not to be found in any of the eighteen principal Upaniṣads - until finally the author of the $G\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$ coined the term $brahma-nirv\bar{a}na$. (II. 72). But the concept of a peaceful, serene and windless place was, as we see from the not uncommon $niv\bar{a}ta$ (adj.) was familiar to them¹⁷.

¹⁶ One has to keep in mind the image of the primeval waters. It has not yet been disturbed by the wind, or "storm", viz. of kāma/manas. Later on, in yoga, manas is, as known, associated with wind, and kāma with a flood: nasti kāmasamo hy ogho (Udānavarga XXIX.37; SWTF s.v. ogha).

¹⁷ K. F. JOHANSSON, Etymologisches und Wortgeschichtliches, Uppsala, 1927, p. 36. Cf. also STIG WIKANDER, Vayu, Uppsala/Leipzig, 1941, p. ix: "Kein Zweifel: wenn von irgendeiner Gottheit gesagt werden kann, daß sie während der arischen Periode eine beherrschende Stellung bei den indo-arischen Stammen eingenommen

The concept of $nirv\bar{a}na$ is intimately related, or intimately opposed, to that of $sams\bar{a}ra$ - also a concept that does not yet occur in the early Vedic/Brahmanical literature. So again we have to go ad fontes.

The Origin of Samsara

The word is usually translated as transmigration, but such a translation fails to do justice to the etymology of the word. And the ancient Indian thinkers were conscious of etymology! Nor does it make much sense to speak of transmigration without assuming any subject of transmigration, and how can one, for instance, in a compound such as vacīsaṃsāra (ref. in PED, s.v.), exchange of words, or in saṃsāracakra, speak of anything that transmigrates?

As said, the word saṃsāra, from sam and the root sṛ, flow together, does not occur as such in early literature, but in RV there is one occurrence (9.97.45) of the finite verb where a drop of Soma is said to flow together with milk and water. So the logic of the term saṃsāra requires something to flow together with something (else). There must be a least two items to make saṃsāra. (This fact is not suggested by "transmigation'.) When he coined the term its author must have been thinking of some sort of dvaya, a set of two(s). We must then ask: What flows together with what?

Again we may have recourse to one of the *logia* often ascribed to *Bhagavat*: anavarāgro hi bhikṣavo jātijarāmaraṇasaṇsāraḥ¹³. It is not here a question of the transmigration of jātijarāmaraṇam, birth, old age, death, but rather of life and death flowing into one another without beginning or end in time and space. Another ancient term for this constant coming and going is ājavaṇjavībhāva (e.g. *Prasannapadā*, p. 218; 529).

habe, so von Vāyu-Vāta. Und seine Geltung ist keineswegs auf die Zeiten und Länder beschränkt, die ihn unter diesem Namen gekannt haben".

¹⁸ Quoted e.g. *Prasannapadā*, p. 218. Ref. J.MAY, op. cit. p. 169; CPD I, p. 156; J. CHARPENTIER, *The Uttarādhyayanasūtra*, Uppsala, 1922, p. 378.- For (an)avara-, cf. avá-stat, RV 10.129.5.

The idea that life (birth) and death etc. <u>flow together</u> without any first or final term has various important implications. No absolute distinction can be made between *sat* and *asat*, life and death.

Being mutually dependent all appearances strictly speaking "flow together". It cannot be otherwise if one takes a cyclic view of causality. It is therefore a fundamental error - a matter of $tr:n\bar{\alpha}$ or $avidy\bar{\alpha}$ - to hang on to any absolute distinction between sat and asat. The presence of sat and asat in itself implies a longing for the original state before the manifestation of sat and asat.

To begin with, before sat and asat, the Vedic poet told us, there was, perhaps, ambhah, water, "indistinguishable, this was all water" (10.129.1). And water may indeed flow. There was no death then, but kāma and manas became active, a storm arose, and everything, life and death, began flowing together.

Life in saṃsāra, in other words, is much like waves on the primeval ocean of the gahanaṃ gabhīram. The distinction between saṃsāra and nirvāṇa, therefore, is not absolute. It does make sense when the yogic sources inform us that the unreal duality disappears in the serenity of mind.

The Original Meaning of Duhkham

Again the word is not found in RV, even though the idea of salvation from death, the central evil, can be traced back to Vedic times. In the early *Upaniṣads* the word *duḥkham* is only found twice: *Chāndogya* 7.26.2 and *Bṛhadāraṇyaka* 4.4.14, in both cases in verses that do not seem very archaic. It is a rather artificial term, from *duḥ* and *kham*, a bad opening, or canal (for water).

Common is the expression sarvam duḥkham. Recalling that sarvam (idam) is a fixed term for the manifest world (RV 8. 58.2, quoted above), or developed from ekam (RV 3.54.8), duḥkham originally indicated the microcosm as opposed to or linked together

with (by means of a canal) to the macrocosm¹⁹. It is an image of the unhappy manifestation/emanation of tad ekam. It is therefore immediately obvious why duhkha(m) later on is used to describe almost any place having to do with saṃsāra. When the Buddha says sarvaṃ duḥkham, and explains sarvam by the five skandhas etc., and, furthermore, explains the five skandhas by the term loka, open space, the world of the individual, it seems fairly certain that the original notion of duḥkham had to do with the observation that the microcosm of the individual due to kāma/tṛṣṇā and manas/avidyā, unfortunately had been separated from the macrocosm. But there was still a "canal" that linked the two together.

The two words duḥkham and saṃsāra were conceived when the image of the primeval waters was still vivid in mind. They both suggest flowing, or emanation, the iyaṃ visṛṣṭiḥ of RV 10.129. 6, 7 – not really "creation", but emission, discharge.

No wonder then that the Buddha exhorts his students to cross the ocean of saṃsāra, to cut off the stream - chinda sotam! (from Sanskrit srotas). A stanza such as Dhammapada 218 (cor. to Udāna II. 9) only really becomes intelligible with this imagery in mind:

chandajāto anakkhāte manasā ca phuṭo siyā /

kāmesu ca appaţibaddhacitto uddhamsoto 'ti vuccati //

One should swim upwards the stream to anakkhāta (Cf. nirvāṇa) suffused by manas, without having one's citta fettered to any object of kāma. The anakkhāta, ineffable, invisible (cf. Vedic khyā!), corresponds well to apraketam of RV 10.129.3, as do kāma and manas, and, of course, again, the image of flowing.

The later commentators, as one would expect, seem to be unaware of the original historical context. But the image of flowing water was very much alive to the individual who first coined the words just discussed.

As to the common expression $ek\bar{a}gra(t\bar{a})$, said of citta (cf. CPD II, p. 583), one-pointedness, it may originally also have belonged in

¹⁹ I do not hesitate to use the terminology macrocosm/microcosm (first coined by Democritus) to express the Indian complementary pair *ekam/sarvam*. On *sarvam*, ref. in J. MAY, *op. cit.*, p. 206.

this context, thus meaning: having one's mind ($citta \approx hrdaya/hrd$) on eka(m)/agra - on the One - the tad ekam agre. Since the Buddhists often use citta in the sense of heart, such an interpretation would fit nicely with the exhortation implicit in RV 10.129.4:...nir avindan hrdi $prat\bar{t}sy\bar{a}$ $kav\acute{a}yo$ $man\bar{t}s\acute{a}$. The "truth" about sat and asat is to be found in one's heart²⁰.

On Satyam

The Buddha spoke of the truth, or truths, that he had personally realised, sometimes he spoke of only one satyam, that of nirvāṇa, but he also spoke of four Aryan truths: duḥkham (=upādāna-skandha), duḥkhasamudaya (=tṛṣṇā), duḥkhanirodha (=nirvāṇa), and the mārga (or pratipad) leading to duḥkhanirodha. To follow the path of the great physician meant to become perfect in śīla, samādhi and prajñā. He pointed out a Middle Path from duḥkham to its nirodha, i.e. from saṃsāra to nirvāṇa. It was a path between extremes, including those of sat and asat. This constituted his dharmadeśanā, for dharma has to do with satya²¹.

The two terms *satyam* and *dharma* are closely related. The former is Vedic, the latter is not. The true *brahman* is one in whom both are present, *Dhammapada* 393;

yamhi saccam ca dharmo ca so sukhī so ca brāhmaņo

The later darśanas ("ways of looking upon (the old problems)) about satkārya-, asatkārya-, and anekāntavāda etc. etc. also start out with this "big problem", suggested in RV 10.129: sat and asat. Likewise in Greek philosophy (from the time of Parmenides). Cf. also astikāya, satkāya, astibhāva, astivastu, etc.

That the Buddha speaks of <u>four</u> truths surely has to do with the old Aryan notion of *dharma* being "four-footed" (complete). Cf. e.g. Manu 1.81: *catuspāt sakalo dharmaḥ*, *satyaṃ caiva kṛte yuge*. For the close relationship between (ārya)satya and (sad)dharma also MK XXIV.30, 40. Cf. also the common expression *catur-bhadra*. There are also four *varṇas*, āśramas, saṃgrahavastus etc. - In RV 10.121.9 the One, Unknown God is said to be satyadharman, cf. Īśā-Up. 15 (satyadharma).

It is, so to speak, the presence of *dharma* and *satyam* in man that links microcosm together with macrocosm. Famous are the words of *Bṛhadāranyaka-Up*. 2.5.11-12:

ayam dharmah sarveṣām bhūtānām madhu. asya dharmasya sarvāṇi bhūtāni madhu. yaś cāyam asmin dharme tejomayo 'mṛtamayaḥ puruṣo yaś cāyam adhyātmam dhārmas tejomayo 'mṛtamayaḥ puruṣo 'yam eva sa yo 'yam ātmā. idam amṛtam idam brahmedam sarvam.

idam satyam sarveşām bhūtānām madhu. asya satyasya sarvām bhūtāni madhu. yaś cāyam asmin satye tejomayo 'mṛtamayaḥ puruṣaḥ yaś cāyam adhyātmam sātyas tejomayo 'mṛtamayaḥ puruṣo 'yam eva sa yo 'yam ātmā. idam amṛtam idam brahmedam sarvam²².

In brief: to the extent that the individual has a share of *dharma* and *satyam*, it is immortal, *Brahman*, it All. Here, again, we see that the duality between micro- and macrocosm is ultimately unreal. The duality is, literally speaking, "untrue".

An old *logion* often ascribed to the Buddha makes fine sense in this context: etad dhi bhikṣavaḥ paramaṇ satyaṇ yad uta amoṣadharma nirvāṇaṇ, sarvasaṃskārāś ca mṛṣā moṣadharmāṇaḥ²³.

When Buddhist sources - especially those of $Mah\bar{a}y\bar{a}na$ - speak of dve satye this distinction corresponds to that of dve $v\bar{a}va$ Brahmano $r\bar{u}pe...$ There is really only one truth, the One, but it does make a difference whether one \underline{knows} it or / and \underline{talks} about it. In one sense satyam has to do with $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ in another it has to do with $kriy\bar{a}$; so both are aspects of the same dharma. One can perhaps say that satyam is the medium through which dharma is expressed. Both can be known and spoken of but dharma would seem to "regulate" truth(s).

²² Compare the common Buddhist expression dharmām ṛta, corresponding to madhu. Ref. C. A. SCHERRER-SCHAUB, op. cit., p. 234..- For dharman/dharma/dhārma etc. W. Wüst, Vergleichendes und Etymologisches Wörterbuch des altindoiranischen, Heidelberg, 1935. p. 102.

²³ E.g. Prasannapadā, p. 41, 237. Discussion S. SCHAYER, Ausgewählte Kapitel aus der Prasannapadā, Kraków, 1931, p. 26. Again satyam (paramam) and dharma(n-) are closely related. (Correct pralāpadharmakam to pralopadharmakam ('jig pa) on p. 238, 1. 1, explaining moṣadharmakam; cf. viparilopa in Bṛḥadāranyaka-Up.)

On Causality

Buddhist sources use the expression ayam dharmah in the sense of $prat\bar{\imath}tyasamutp\bar{a}da$. This, our, Buddhist dharma. The purpose of teaching, or pointing out, this dharma is to show how duhkham - idam sarvam - comes about as a result of $trsn\bar{a}/avidy\bar{a}$ — the old pair $k\bar{a}ma/manas$ - operating in a certain way, by necessity and verifiable by personal experience. It was probably the most characteristic and original feature of early Buddhism, the result of admirably independent thinking on the part of Gautama.

The vagueness or silence of RV 10.129 on causality naturally opened the path for $brahmav\bar{a}dins$ to speculate about $k\bar{a}rana$. The earliest Buddhist and Jaina texts are already replete with such speculations (drsti) about the relationship between macro- and microcosm. These thinkers could not remain satisfied with the mythical account of Brahman (n.) giving somehow rise to Mr. $Brahm\bar{a}$ (m.), the $Praj\bar{a}pati$ who then arranged the world as we happen to know it. Our sources for the earliest period are about as tantalizing as they are often disappointing.

The Vedic texts and the early *Upanisads* do not yet have any clear concept of causality though the <u>tendency</u> to scientific thinking is very strong indeed. With Oldenberg we may here speak of "prescientific science".

At the time of Gautama the Indians, like the Greeks, were about to take the decisive step, from *mythos* to *logos*.

The initial verses of Śvetāśvatara-Up. let philosophers (brahmavid) search for the kāraṇa - is it kāla, svabhāva, niyati, yadṛcchā, the elements, puruṣa, or a combination of some or all of these?

Similar lists of candidates for the post of being the sole $k\bar{a}rana$ are known from several Buddhist and Jaina sources.

Nāgārjuna, in his Suhṛllekha 50, rejects these six views of causality as being false: yadṛcchā ('dod rgyal), kāla (dus), prakṛti (? ran bźin), svabhāva (no bo ñid), Īśvara (dban phyug), and ahetuka (rgyu med can).

In the Introduction to the *Akutobhayā* we find this list of wrong causes: *Īśvara* (*dbaň phyug*), *puruṣa* (*skyes bu*), *ubhaya* (*gñi ga*), *kāla* (*dus*), *prakṛti* (? *raṅ bźin*), *niyati* (*nes pa*), *pariṇāma* ('gyur ba), and *aṇu* (*rdul phra*).

The commentary to Akṣaraśataka 6 says ...ran bźin dan, dban phyug dan, rdul phra rab dan, phyogs dan, dus la sogs thams cad rgyu ma yin te, bltos pa'i phyir ro.

Bhavya, in the first chapter of his *Prajñāpradīpa* mentions and rejects these "bad causes": *svabhāva*, *Īśvara*, *puruṣa*, *pradhāna* (or *prakṛti*), *kāla*, *Nārāyaṇa*, etc. His commentator, the indefatigable Avalokitavrata adds; *Brahman*, *Prajāpati*, *Manu*, *daiva*, *Druvāna* (?) of the Persians, and *Yuna* (?) of the (Greek) Barbarians²⁴.

Candrakīrti has this list: *svabhāva*, *Īśvara*, *prakṛti*, *puruṣa*, *kāla*, *Nārāyaṇa*, etc²⁵.

Aśvaghoṣa, in his Saundarananda XVI.17 has : Īśvara, prakṛti, kāla, svabhāva (vidhi?), yadṛcchā... (cf. Maitrī-Up. VI.14-16).

It is inconceivable that some of these speculations about causality in some form should have been unknown to Gautama. As an educated intellectual and philosopher he would not have permitted himself to remain ignorant of what was going on in contemporary philosophical circles.

If we can trust our sources some of his contemporaries called adhiccasamuppanika, asserted that things arise fortuitously, that they are adhiccasamuppanna. According to the commentators (cf. CPD I, p. 132) these people held that the world and the soul come about without $k\bar{a}rana$, or according to $yadrcch\bar{a}$. In other words, they had a doctrine of $adh\bar{t}tya-samutp\bar{a}da^{26}$.

²⁴ See W.L. AMES, "Bhāvaviveka's Prajñāpradīpa", in Journal of Indian Philosophy 21 (1993), p. 247. - For Suhṛllekha etc. I have used the Tibetan editions (Peking, Derge). Cf. also Vaidalya IX: Viṣṇu, Śiva, Brahmā, Kapila, Ulūka, Vyāsa, Vasiṣṭha, Vyāghrabhūti read thus!), Gārgya (read thus!) and Māṭhara; cf. F. Tola, C. Dragonetti, Nāgārjuna's Refutation of Logic, Delhi, 1995, p. 62.

²⁵ See C. A. SCHERRER-SCHAUB, op. cit., p. 108, n.18 with ref. Also the old verse: ye dharmā hetuprabhavā hetum teṣām tathāgato hy avadat (ibid., p. 117).
²⁶ See F. O. SCHRADER, Kleine Schriften, p. 19 and 481.

Gautama's most original contribution to the theories of the mechanics of causality was that of *pratītya-samutpāda*. Again and again our sources ascribe this *logion* to Gautama: *yaḥ pratītyasamutpādaṃ paśyati sa dharmaṃ paśyati*²⁷.

It seems natural to assume that Gautama coined the new word pratītya-samutpāda, taking his clue from those who ventured to explain the origin of the world and the soul in terms of adhītya-samutpāda.

The four Aryan truths all had to do with *duḥkham* - what it is, how it comes about, and where and how one can become released from one's sad confinement.

One has to realise the four Aryan satyas, but one also has to see the dharma for oneself - just as the Tathāgata did (hence his name). The two concepts, as we saw, are not identical but they do form an old pair of twins.

Apparently the canonical sources do not know $k\bar{a}rana$, in the sense of "ultimate cause of the world". But there can hardly be any doubt that dharma in the sense of $prat\bar{\imath}tyasamutp\bar{\imath}da$ was intended (in the logion cited above) to identify the ultimate cause and its function. Things come about in a certain way, in a strict temporal succession. Gautama himself must have felt that he had thereby had the final say in an old and long debate on causality.

It does not surprise us that Buddhist sources occasionally identify dharma with Brahman. To see dharma - dṛṣṭe dharme, to have understood causality 28 - and to know Brahman is to understand the ultimate cause of the world. It does make sense when the Buddha says, referring to himself, that Brahmabhūta is an adhivacana for $Tath\bar{a}gata$.

²⁷ Cf. J.-U. HARTMANN, op. cit., p. 218; J. MAY, op. cit., p. 251 C. A. SCHERRER-SCHAUB, op. cit., passim.

²⁸ From the context (cf. 26) dharma must here be = $prat\bar{\imath}tyasamutp\bar{\imath}da$. The usual translation ("here in this life) is not very accurate.

Now and then *dharmacakra* and *brahmacakra* are used as synonyms, and in such cases *cakra* would seem to mean "cyclic causality". Likewise in the celebrated image of *saṃsāracakra*, or *saṃsāramaṇḍala*²⁹.

The Middle Path

The old formula is well-known: ayaṃ kho sā bhikkhave majjhimā paṭipadā tathāgatena abhisambuddhā, cakkhukaraṇī, ñāṇakaraṇī, upasamāya, abhiññāya, sambodhāya, nibbānāya samvattati...³⁰

The Middle Path discovered by the one who has actually followed it - this seems to be the meaning of the term $Tath\bar{a}gata$ (also used by non-Buddhists in a similar context) - leads to $nirv\bar{a}na$. Other terms with the same denotation but not with same connotation, for $nirv\bar{a}na$ are given (There may be some still obscure historical reasons for this.) The two terms $patipad\bar{a}$ and magga seem to be interchangeable synonyms.

Tathāgata could also have said that he had followed ("gone") the Brahmapatha, the Brahmayāna, that he was now Brahmabhūta, that he had lived the Brahmacarya etc. etc., to much the same effect.

It is true that the ambiguity of brahma – in compounds (deliberately meaningful in some cases, see below) can render it doubtful whether Brahman (n.) or $Brahm\bar{a}$ (m.) is actually meant. But I suppose we can be fairly sure that the Buddha would not (under normal circumstances) want to identify himself with the hilarious $Brahm\bar{a}$ who in the canon is depicted as issara, $katt\bar{a}$, $nimm\bar{a}t\bar{a}$, $abhibh\bar{u}$, $pit\bar{a}$ $bh\bar{u}tabhavy\bar{a}nam$ etc. (see CPD II, p. 318)³¹.

²⁹ E. WALDSCHMIDT, *Von Ceylon bis Turfan*, Göttingen, 1967, p. 351; F. O. SCHRADER, *op. cit.*, pp. 121, 169, 310; PED. Early ref. in H. KERN, *Manual of Indian Buddhism*, Strassburg, 1896, p. 99.

³⁰ Ref. in CPD I, p. 346; and *Pāli Tipitakam Concordance*, London, 1956, c.v. *abhināā(ya)* etc.

³¹ Early *Īśvaravāda*, cf. F. O. SCHRADER, p. 52.- When the Buddhists spoke of aṣṭāngikamārga, tridoṣa, dvādaśānga (-nidāna) they were, in my opinion, adopting

<u>He</u> $Brahm\bar{a}$ - is <u>not</u> the one $Tath\bar{a}gata$ has in mind when he refers to himself as $brahmabh\bar{u}ta$. Nor does he advise others to follow a path that leads to the comical creator $Brahm\bar{a}$.

Therefore, when $Tath\bar{a}gata$ (subs. adj.!) indicates a path to $nirv\bar{a}na$, the place of enlightened serenity, he points to Brahman. He might — as did the author of the $G\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$ (2.72) — have coined the term $brahma-nirv\bar{a}na$ for this; but for various reasons he did not. The main reason would be that he, as a reformer (not as a revolutionary) would have felt the need for a new term for an old concept, now contrite. The word Brahman had been so abused in his days. This is especially clear from several texts in the DN.

But if *Tathāgata* pointed out a path avoiding extremes (anta) - also those of sat / śāśvata and asat / uccheda - to Brahman, why did he not, being so concerned with RV 10.129 as we have seen he was, also speak of the newly discovered path as leading to tad ekam? This is, if I may say so, a good question.

In fact, he probably did. I have already pointed out a few canonical references to *ekatvam* (above), and if one consults the compounds with *eka*- in the CPD there are more. There are numerous canonical references to an *ekāyana-magga* invariably said to lead to *nirvāṇa*. Instead of translating (as the CPD does) *ekāyana* with "single (=unique) road, for one person" - a translation in direct conflict with the fact that it is eight-fold and to be followed by many - it is obviously more natural simply to translate: the path that leads to the One, viz. *nirvāṇa*. Likewise, when the *dharma* is said to leave *ekarasa*, viz. *vimukti-rasa*, it does not really mean " a single taste", but rather "the taste of the One". And in an old phrase such as *sammāsambuddhena ekadhammo akkhāto* (CPD, s.v. *eka-dhamma*) it is surely absurd to translate *ekadhamma* as "one single thing" - as if the fully enlightened Buddha had nothing else to say! It makes sense to say that the Buddha has expounded the *Dharma* that is (or is

medical terminology. Cf. e.g. R. F. G. MÜLLER, *Grundsätze altindischer Medizin*, Kopenhagen, 1951, *passim*. Also A. WEZLER, "On the Quadruple Division of the Yogaśāstra", in IT 12 (1984), pp. 289-337 (a somewhat different view).

about) the One. Terms like ekī-bhāva, ekī-bhūta, ekodibhūta, ekaggabhūta, etc. may well deserve revision in this new perspective.

The Tree of Brahman

The author of RV 10.129, to be sure, did not identify tad ekam with Brahman - at least not in plain words. But later sources invariably do so, as we have seen. A clear case is Śatapatha-Brāhmaṇa 11.2.3.1: Brahma vai idam agre āsīt, tad devān asrjata. And 14.8.6.1: āpaḥ evedam agre āsuḥ, tāḥ āpas satyam asrjanta, satyaṃ Brahma, Brahma Prajāpatiṃ, Prajāpatir devān.

Brahman is also imagined as the Cosmic Tree. The first reference is perhaps RV 1.24.7, q.v. Later on RV 10.81.4 asks:

kím svid vánam ká u sá vyksá āsa

yáto dyấvāpṛthivī nistataksúh?

Which forest was it, which tree was it, from which they carved out heaven and earth? - The reply is given in *Taittirīya-Brāhmaṇa* 2. 8.9.6: *Brahma vanaṃ, Brahma sa vṛkṣa āsīt. Brahman* was the forest, *Brahman* was the tree.

The simile, as known, recurs in *Kaṭha-Up*. 6.1-4; Śvetāśvatara-Up. 3. 7-9, and, based on these sources, in the $G\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$ 15. 1-3. As avyayam (=amṛtam) the tree is Brahman, but to the extent that the tree of Brahman is also samsāra one should "cut it down".

There is also a Buddhist version of this tree (e.g. pointed out by Zaehner, $G\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$, p. 361) viz. Samyutta IV, p. 160-161. Here the point is that the fig-tree, when cut with an axe, lets its sap $(k\bar{\imath}s\bar{\imath}ra)$ flow out when it is young and tender, but not when dry, sapless and past its season. Likewise, a monk should not give rise to $r\bar{a}ga$, dosa and moha.

Much more interesting here is the technical term *skandha*, which can mean the trunk, stem or branching of a tree. This brings us to the celebrated *duḥkhaskandha*, the net outcome of causality. The world, individual existence, *loka*, or *duḥkham* is identified with the five *upādāna-skandhas*. There are a few Vedic occurrences of the related *skandhas* (n.) (not *skandha*) in the sense of the branching

top or crown of a tree (cf. MW, p. 1256), or "Verästelung des Baumes", as H. Grassmann renders it in his Wörterbuch zum Rig-Veda (p. 1584). So most likely duḥkhaskandha does not mean "mass of suffering", but rather "the branching that is duḥkham".

Since, as said, the five *skandhas*, the *duḥkhaskandha*, *loka*, (*idaṃ*) *sarvam*, and *duḥkham* have the same denotation in the oldest Buddhist sources it is very tempting to suggest that Gautama knew the image of the Cosmic Tree when he introduced the five *skandhas* to identify *duḥkham*. This also suggests, if true, that in his times the image of *duḥkham*, having to do with flowing, may already have been somewhat faded.

The usual translation of upādānaskandhas as "the (five) groups of grasping" strikes me as unsatisfactory, for the simple reason that there is no question of the skandhas themselves grasping anything or being grasped by anyone or anything. What is meant is rather the material and temporal manifestation, basis or substratum (as wood for fire). The term is cognate to upādi / upādhi, upādāya, etc. and it is thus easily intelligible why the ancient sources also distinguish between two kinds of nirvana, one which still has a basis left in the skandhas (sopadhiśesa) and one which is no longer manifest in the skandhas (nirupadhi-śesa-). It is also obvious why "everything", namely the skandhas etc., is said to be "on fire", and why the skandhas are considered impermanent and without a self. It is not that the Buddha denied an atman in the sense of Brahman. (The term ātman in the sense of "living soul" may be related to RV 10. 129.2c.) Brahman, or nirvāna, is never (or only rhetorically) said to lack any ātman; it is only everything that is manifest that lacks any ātman, being, of course, subject to the law of pratityasamutpāda.

The author of *Dhammapada* 283 was surely thinking of the Tree of *Brahman* when he wrote:

vanam chindatha, mā rukkham, vanato jāyati bhayam chetvā vanam ca vanatham ca nibbanā hotha bhikkhavo

Of course *vana* (n.) here, as always, means forest, namely that of *saṃsāra*. (It has nothing to do with Vedic *vanas*, lust, which would spoil the image.) Likewise *Thera-Gāthā* 90 (=120) speaks of the five *skandhas* being, when fully understood, "cut off from their

root" (chinnam \bar{u} laka). At that point there is the end of $j\bar{a}tisams\bar{a}ra$ (ibid.).

So Gautama's theory of the *skandhas* had at its root, if one may say so, the Tree of *Brahman*.

The Bhagavat Myth

So *Brahman* had two forms $(r\bar{u}pa)$, an immortal and a bodiless, and a mortal and bodily: The One was transcendent <u>and</u> immanent. There was often a good reason for leaving it *sub judice*, in compounds, whether the reference is to *Brahman* (n.) or to Brahmā (m.).

This notion was adopted by the Śramaṇa movements in opposition to established Brahmanism. The myth of *Bhagavat* was created.

Like Brahman a Bhagavat invariably has \underline{two} forms $(r\bar{u}pa, k\bar{a}ya, \text{etc.})$. Bhagavat became a technical term used by any creed to honour the more or less historical individual who had propounded anew an old Dharma. As a rule a Bhagavat has many predecessors. He is a $homo\ divinus$. It is not just later on, in $Mah\bar{a}y\bar{a}na$, that a distinction is made between the $r\bar{u}pa$ - and $dharmak\bar{a}ya$ of the Buddha. The distinction between the two forms is inherent from the very beginning in the concept of Bhagavat. It applies to the Buddha, to Mahāvīra, to Kṛṣṇa (BG 9. 11), i.e. Viṣṇu, Śiva. etc. etc. A Bhagavat, by definition, is the object of $bhakti^{32}$. The reason for this bhakti is invariably that a Bhagavat by way of $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ has let himself be incarnated in a mortal and physical frame in order to teach a path to the One to his devotees.

A *Bhagavat*, by definition, also teaches a <u>double *dharma*</u>. Kṛṣṇa spoke of an old *dvividhā niṣṭhā* (BG 3. 3): one kind of *yoga* that had to do with *jñāna*, another that had to do with *karma*. Virtually all

³² Already in Aśoka's Seventh Rock Edict we find *daḍhabhattitā* (i.e. *dṛḍhabhaktitā*). The composition of *stotras/stutis* was from the very start a natural expression of *bhakti* - as was the composition of hymns to the ancient Vedic gods.

other Indian philosophers make a similar distinction, though naturally using their own terminology (samjñābheda)³³.

In the old canonical Buddhist formula *Tathāgata* is described, as *vidyā-caraṇa-saṃpanna*, in full possession of *vidyā* and *caraṇa*³⁴. The distinction between intellectual and moral perfection in a *Bhagavat* is not only common to all kinds of *Bhagavatism*, as said, but can also be seen as a reply to the old question of RV 10.129.6:

kó addhá veda, ká ihá prá vocat kúta ájātā kúta iyám vísṛṣṭiḥ?

A *Bhagavat* was one who knew the answer, he deserves *bhakti* for telling us which path to follow in order that one may discover for oneself what he himself had discovered - and others before him.

That Gautama, Mahāvīra, Kṛṣṇa, etc. were considered *Bhagavats* by their adherents is a fact, but this does not at all mean that the <u>historical</u> Gautama etc. considered themselves to be a *Bhagavat*. Gautama may have referred to himself as *Tathāgata* and Buddha, but did he also refer to himself as *Bhagavat*³⁵?

The Indian myth of a *Bhagavat* - God as a human preacher - is, from a phenomenological point of view, to be found in the myth of Jesus as Christ. We say Jesus Christ, just as the Buddhist texts say

³³ This was clearly recognised e.g. by the Jaina polymath Haribhadra, in his

Śāstravārtāsamuccaya 23, q.v.

³⁴ That a *tathāgata* - the true *brahman* and *bhagavat* - was *vidyā-caraṇasaṃpanna* was not a specific Buddhist notion. It is also fo in ancient jaina sources, cf. F. O. SCHRADER, *op. cit.* Likewise *Gītā* 5.18 (*vidyāvinayasaṃpanna*) Cf. K. MEISIG, *op. cit.*, p. 166; J.-U. HARTMANN, p. 221; R. O. FRANKE, *passim.* For the formula, E. WALDSCHMIDT, *Von Ceylon bis Turfan*, p. 380. Closely related, almost synonyms in the early period: *śīla-prajñā*, *dharma-vinaya* and *sāṃkhya-yoga*, *jñāṇa-karma*. They all refer to a *Bhagavat* who is intellectually and morally perfect.

³⁵ In other words: Gautama, Mahāvīra (even Kṛṣṇa, Kapila, etc.) were historical fīgures around whom the common myth of a Bhagavat was created. The root of this myth was not just the notion of dve vāva Brahmaņo rūpe (above) but also that of a Mahāpuruṣa, traces of which are found e.g. in the Puruṣasūkta (RV 10.90). The "double nature" or body, is suggested in verse 5 when it says that Virāj is born from Puruṣa and Puruṣa from Virāj. He participates in amṛta and he sacrifices himself for the world. This idea is adopted by the Buddhists - after all karma and karuṇā are related concepts. - A visible and an invisible kāya of Tathāgata is assumed in Brahmajāla § 73-a precursor of Vajracchedikā: ye māṃ rūpeṇa cādrākṣur..(cf. Dhammapada 259). Cf. satkāya-dṛṣṭi, to regard the (physical) body as real.

Buddho Bhagavān. We forget the <u>as</u>, and thus we - if we are not historians - forget the distinction between history and myth. But mundus vult decipi!

Jesus <u>as</u> Christ, however, is another story, i.e. a myth. I am sure that future research will also make it a very <u>long</u> story!

The Formation of Tattvam

We have seen that the concept of a double *Brahman / Bhagavat* symbolizes the same "unity in everything", that makes it rather easy to understand why there is no absolute difference between *saṃsāra* and *nirvāṇa*. One distinction has to do with "persons", another with "principles".

In his Yuktiṣaṣtikā 5-6, Nāgārjuna, a learned Sanskritist with an extensive knowledge of Buddhist as well as Brahmanical lore, wrote:

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saṃsāraṃ caiva nirvāṇaṇ manyante 'tattvadarśinaḥ / na saṃsāraṃ na nirvāṇaṇ manyante tattvadarśinaḥ // nirvāṇaṃ ca bhavaś caiva dvayam etan na vidyate / parijñānaṃ bhavasyaiva nirvāṇam iti kathyate //
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So, in the perspective of tattvadarśana / parijñāna the distinction between saṃsāra (bhava) and nirvāṇa - the duality, dvaya - is not valid. In this there is nothing new. But what is new is the word tattvam, which in later literature is extremely common, especially in compounds such as tattvajñāna, tattvadarśana and the like.

But what does *tattvam* really mean? What does one see or know when one sees or knows *tattvam*? According to the standard dictionaries and translations, it means "that-ness", truth, reality. The word, to be sure, is not Vedic.

I think there are at least two good reasons to reject this "etymology", "that-ness".

First of all, if *tat-tvam* means "that-ness" we should ask: "that-ness" of what? The context requires a genitive to express the possessive relationship. It is not clear what "that" is, and what "that"

is said to be. There is no such relationship when we speak of tattvajñāna, tattvadarśana, etc.

Secondly, the word *tattvam* apparently does not occur in the early sources. It is not Vedic and if I am not mistaken it is not to be found in the early canonical texts of Buddhism and Jainism. This is significant.

We must ask when the term tattvam was introduced, why, where and exactly in what sense.

As far as I can see the word first occurs in <u>later Upaniṣads</u> such as *Muṇḍaka* (1), *Kaṭha* (2), *Śvetāśvatara* (3), and *Maitrāyaṇī* (4). The context invariably presumes that the reader is already familiar with the meaning of the term. A translation such as "that-ness" would not make any sense to the reader in any of these early contexts.

These later *Upaniṣads* presuppose knowledge of the early *Chāndogya* and I think it is here we have to look for the clue to the formation of *tat-tvam*. Here (VI.8.7; 9.4; 10.3; 13.3; 15.3; 16.3) we find the celebrated phrase: sa ya eṣo 'nimaitadātmyam idaṃ sarvaṃ tat satyaṃ, sa ātmā, tat tvam asi Śvetaketo iti; bhūya eva mā bhagavān vijñāpayatv iti.

Here a *Bhagavat* identifies micro- and macrocosm by saying that *tat* is one with *tvam*, that object and subject are somehow not really different. This great passage, repeated six times, would have been so familiar to the reader of the later *Upaniṣads* that it would have been immediately obvious that *tattvam* was formed on the basis of *tat tvam asi*. It thus means <u>identity</u>, namely the identity of *tat* and *tvam*, what in Buddhist terminology becomes *saṃsāra* and *nirvāṇa*. There is no *dvaya* between the two in *tattvam*, i.e. when one, in one's heart (*hṛdī*) knows the two as one, the One.

As we can see from other compounds such as *ahaṇṇkāra*, *mamakāra*, *ahamahamikā*, *idaṃpratyayatā*, etc. it was not at all uncommon in those days and in those circles to use pronouns for the formation of a substantive with a specific philosophical meaning.

So *tattvam* is a synonym of *ekatvam* and *advayam*. It simply means <u>identity</u>, and it was introduced into Buddhism by *brahmans* who adopted it from their own tradition. By extension, the meaning

"identity" is still apparent in later compounds such as *tattvānyatva*, a synonym of *ekatvānyatva*. Even here it does not mean "that-ness", truth or reality, but identity, unity (as opposed to duality, difference). It is a new word for the old *ekatvam*, but the connotation is a bit different because *ekatvam* has a somewhat wider range of meaning. The word *tattvam* primarily belongs to an epistemological context, the word *ekatvam* to an ontological.

So when later Buddhist $\bar{a}c\bar{a}ryas$, writing is Sanskrit, used the term tattvam, they introduced a new <u>word</u> without canonical authorisation. But the <u>idea</u> was not new³⁶.

Likewise, when Mahāyāna identified tattvam with śūnyatā it was in a way quite conservative. According to RV 10.129.3, in the beginning tad ekam was covered with the void (tuchya). So everything was void, or empty, all along. Emptiness is the "ultimate" truth. There is also a "relative" truth, one of the terms for which is saṃvṛti-satyam. Buddhist authors who wrote in Sanskrit understood saṃvṛti (from sam and the root vṛ) as meaning "completely covering" and the like. According to RV 10.129.3, in the beginning tad ekam was covered (apihitam) by the void. Thus at least one

³⁶ In fact the early sources may have known the expression *tat tvam asi*, but avoided it as silly *bāladharma*; I think F. O. SCHRADER, *op. cit.*, p. 300 was right in taking *so loko so attā* as a paraphrase of *tat tvam asi*. How can the *attā* be *loko* when one has to live *brahmabhūtena attanā*? (ibid., p. 121). Cf. also the old expression about seeing/touching *dharma* with the body; H. LÜDERS, p. 162. -There are various ways to *brahmasahavyatā* (see *Saddanīti*, p. 417). It is ridiculous to say: *aham asmi Brahmā...* The *Tevijja* (in DN) makes it clear that it was the common ideal in those times to "see Brahma", i.e. to find a *mārga* to *sahavyatā* with *Brahmā/Brahman*. The Buddha is just one of those who offer such a *mārga*.

The old canonical passage: attā te, purisa, jānāti saccam vā yadi vā musā, sakkhi (cf. H. Kern, op. cit., p. 68, n. 8) could perhaps be understood as a "reply" to RV 10.129.7. Likewise the celebrated verse cited e.g. Prasannapadā, n. 354 about ātman as sākṣin (= adhyakṣa of RV!). The verse on p. 355: nāstīha sattva ātmā vā... does not deny ātman as sākṣin, but as being present as an empirical entity, here in the objective world. This suggests that Gautama accepted the "existence" of an ātman, a "witness" to real and unreal, itself, like vijāāna (DN I, p. 223), ananta, anidarśana, effulgent etc. Cf. Śvetāśvatara-Up. 6.11; Gītā. 9. 18.

As for tattva note the remark in the Mahābhāṣya; tad api nityam yatra tattvam na vihanyate. Quoted in H. Jacobi, Kleine Schriften, Wiesbaden, 1970, p. 686, n. 1.

fundamental aspect of the *Mahāyāna satyadvaya-vibhāga* can be traced back to RV 10.129.3³⁷.

In a previous paper, written from an entirely different point of view, I came to the conclusion (not without being hypothetical) that "pre-canonical" or "original" Buddhism, that of Gautama, conceived nirvāṇa as a place, literally speaking, that a yogin could travel to³⁸. I did not then recognise the enormous influence of the Vedic and Brahmanical tradition on early Buddhism. It is now becoming more and more clear that cosmogonic speculations and Vedic exegesis were vital and formative for Gautama's way of thinking. He was concerned with tad ekam beyond sat and asat. Not being limited by time and space it could be "gone to" by yogic cognition.

This is not to say that (early) Buddhism is Brahmanism. On four major points the Buddhists - and the Jains - rejected Brahmanism. These four points are summed up in a historically accurate way by Dharmakīrti in the final verse of the first chapter of his *Pramāṇavārtika* (340):

vedāprāmāṇyaṇ kasyacit kartṛvādaḥ snāne dharmecchā jātivādāvalepaḥ/... 39

The authority of the Veda, the doctrine of a creator of the world, the conviction that rituals can cause moral purity, and the haughtiness based on claims of birth - on these points Buddhism has always rejected Brahmanism. Likewise, according to an earlier and very well-informed source - the *Viśeṣastava* (73) of *Udbhaṭasiddhasvāmin* - people say that the Buddhists "hate the gods, the *brahmans* and the Veda"⁴⁰.

³⁷ Cf. my paper "Atiśa's Introduction to the Two Truths, and its Sources", in *Journal of Indian Philosophy* 9 (1981), pp. 161-214.

³⁸ See my "Nāgārjuna and the Problem of Precanonical Buddhism", in *Religious Studies* 15-17 (1992-1994), pp. 112-136.

³⁹ On these four "marks", see P. S. JAINI's fine paper "Śramanas: Their Conflict with Brahmanical Society", in J. W. ELDER (ed.), Chapters in Indian Civilization, Dubuque, Iowa, 1970, pp. 39-81.

⁴⁰ This very interesting text was edited and translated by J. SCHNEIDER, *Der Lobpreis der Vorzüglichkeit des Buddha*, Bonn, 1993. Verse 59 alludes to Manu 4. 80. "Unter den Göttern kritisiert der Text u.a. Siva, Viṣṇu-Kṛṣṇa, Brahman (i.e. Brahmā), und Indra-Śakra. An Philosophien kennt der Autor u.a. das Sāṇkhya,

Apart from that ancient Indian Buddhism should be seen as reformed Brahmanism.

If he were to address himself to a modern Jewish, Christian or Moslem audience, i.e. to the "Abrahamic religions" an ancient Indian Buddhist $\bar{a}c\bar{a}rya$ would have to admit that he did not like the Bible (Koran), the priesthood, their rituals and the God they hail as the Creator⁴¹.

aber auch Nyāya-Vaiśeṣika, Mīmāṇṣā und Vedānta sind dem Verfasser nicht unbekannt. Von den nichthinduistischen Religionen findet der Jinismus Erwähnung" (p. 12, n. 7).

⁴¹ Ref. to Pārasīka are common in Buddhist and Brahmanical literature. The first (and only) ref. to Moslems that I know of is to be found in Avalokitavrata's commentary to *Prajāāpradīpa* (mu sul man).